DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 363 861 CS 011 460

AUTHOR Sweet, Anne P.
TITLE Transforming Ideas for Teaching and Learning To Read. State of the Art.
INSTITUTION Office of Educational Research and Improvement (ED), Washington, DC.
REPORT NO ISBN-0-16-042989-7; OR-93-3046
PUB DATE Nov 93
NOTE 22p.
AVAILABLE FROM U.S. Government Printing Office, Superintendent of Documents, Mail Stop: SSOP, Washington, DC 20402--9328.
PUB TYPE Information Analyses (070) -- Guides - Non-Classroom Use (055)

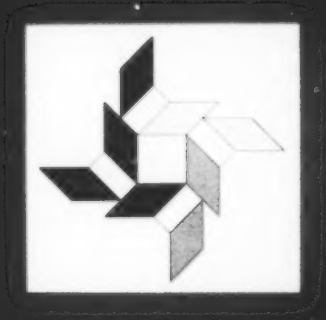
EDRS PRICE MF01/PC01 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS Discussion (Teaching Technique); Elementary Education; Literature Reviews; Reader Response; *Reading; Reading Diagnosis; *Reading Instruction; Reading Research; Reading Skills; *Reading Strategies; Reading Writing Relationship; *Student Evaluation; Teacher Behavior
IDENTIFIERS Paired Reading; Phonemic Awareness

ABSTRACT

Based on research findings and practical experience, this booklet presents 10 interrelated ideas to transform instruction in reading and heighten literacy learning for all students. The booklet notes that research has led to new understandings about basic cognitive and instructional processes (particularly those involved in reading comprehension). The 10 ideas discussed in the booklet are: (1) children, when reading, construct their own meaning; (2) effective reading instruction can develop engaged readers who are knowledgeable, strategic, motivated, and socially interactive; (3) phonemic awareness is one of the best predictors of later success in reading; (4) modeling is an important form of classroom support for literacy learning; (5) storybook reading, done in the context of sharing experiences, ideas, and opinions, is a highly demanding mental activity for children; (6) responding to literature helps students construct their own meaning which may not always be the same for all readers; (7) children who engage in daily discussions about what they read are more likely to become critical readers and learners; (8) expert readers have strategies that they use to construct meaning before, during, and after reading; (9) children's reading and writing abilities develop together; and (10) the most valuable form of reading assessment reflects current understanding about the reading process and simulates authentic reading tasks. A 12-item list of suggested reading is attached. Contains 56 references. (RS)

****
* Reproductions supplied by EDRS are the best that can be made *
* from the original document. *
****

ED 363 861



U.S. DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
Office of Educational Research and Improvement
EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)

☒ This document has been reproduced as received from the person or organization originating it.

☐ Minor changes have been made to improve reproduction quality.

• Points of view or opinions stated in this document do not necessarily represent official OERI position or policy.

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

State of the Art

Transforming Ideas for Teaching and Learning To Read

Anne P. Sweet

U.S. Department of Education
Richard W. Riley
Secretary

Office of Educational Research and Improvement
Sharon P. Robinson
Assistant Secretary

Office of Research
Joseph C. Conaty
Acting Director

By: Anne P. Sweet
Office of Research
Acting Director, Learning and Instruction Division
Federal Monitor, National Reading Research Center

November 1993

This book is in the public domain. Authorization to reproduce it in whole or in part for educational purposes is granted.

Ordering Information

This publication will be sold in bulk at the U.S. Government Printing Office. For further information, call their Order Desk at 202/783–3238. The GPO stock number for this book is 065–000–00620–1. For single copies, please write to U.S. Department of Education, OERI Education Information, 555 New Jersey Avenue NW, Washington, DC 20208–5641.

Designed by
Phil Carr

Illustrated by
William I. Johnston

The illustrations in this booklet represent a transformation of the reading experience by spinning four homogeneous texts into four heterogeneous texts, which changes their patterns along the way.

Foreword

Ten ideas to transform instruction in reading and heighten literacy learning for all students are offered in this booklet. These ideas, some of which have already begun to take hold in classrooms across the country, are based on solid research findings and practical experience. They represent movement away from well-known reading instruction practices of the recent past which have endured for half a century. Changes in practice have been brought about largely due to dramatic gains in knowledge over the last two decades. Research has led to new understandings about basic cognitive and instructional processes, particularly those involved in reading comprehension.

According to Robinson et al. (1990), among practices in reading comprehension instruction dating back to the early 20th century in American schools, emphasis has shifted from

- Using oral reading to help get meaning from text to using silent reading to aid comprehension;
- Using worksheets, workbooks, and reading kits to direct student comprehension to teaching reading strategies that aid students in guiding their own comprehension;
- Asking "what" questions (e.g., practicing finding the main idea) to asking "how" and "why" questions (e.g., learning how to make inferences while reading);
- Teaching subskills (e.g., identifying a story sequence) to teaching holistic comprehension strategies that include these subskills (e.g., summarizing); and
- Providing little direct teaching to increasing the amount of direct teaching that is specific (e.g., strategy instruction), followed by supervised independent practice.

This shift reflects an evolving view of reading which is now considered to be a strategic process through which readers construct meaning by interacting with text. That is, readers use clues in the text and their own prior knowledge to assign meaning to what they read. Furthermore, interactions between the teacher, the student, the text, purposes for reading, and the context within which literacy events occur all come into play in the construction of meaning and the acquisition of reading strategies.

Finally, the shift among practices in reading comprehension instruction is toward understanding metacognition and helping students develop tools with which to direct their own learning. Moreover, this shift reflects recognition of the significant role teachers play in students' advancement along the literacy continuum. These and related topics are discussed in the pages that follow.

State of the Art: Transforming Ideas for Teaching and Learning To Read is addressed to teachers—key agents who ensure that each child enters the pathway to becoming a literate adult, and who guide students in their ascending journey every step of the way. This publication may also be shared with school administrators, policymakers, and parents who hold the common vision of heightened literacy learning for all children. Working with teachers, these persons can help provide the vital support needed to transform literacy instruction in classrooms. Together, they can ensure that every child becomes an able reader and critical thinker who is well prepared to embark upon a lifetime of learning.

How This Booklet Is Organized

This booklet is organized into 10 interrelated *ideas* for transforming the teaching and learning of reading. For ease of discussion, these ideas are both presented separately and built one upon the other, as are the illustrations that accompany them.

Transforming Idea Page

1. **Children, when reading, construct their own meaning.** 3

2. **Effective reading instruction can develop engaged readers who are knowledgeable, strategic, motivated, and socially interactive.** 4

3. **Phonemic awareness, a precursor to competency in identifying words, is one of the best predictors of later success in reading.** 5

4. **Modeling is an important form of classroom support for literacy learning.** 6

5. **Storybook reading, done in the context of sharing experiences, ideas, and opinions, is a highly demanding mental activity for children.** 7

6. **Responding to literature helps students construct their own meaning which may not always be the same for all readers.** 8

7. **Children who engage in daily discussions about what they read are more likely to become critical readers and learners.** 9

8. **Expert readers have strategies that they use to construct meaning before, during, and after reading.** 10

9. **Children's reading and writing abilities develop together.** 11

10. **The most valuable form of reading assessment reflects our current understanding about the reading process and simulates authentic reading tasks.** 12

References 13

Suggested Reading 17

For sale by the U.S. Government Printing Office
Superintendent of Documents, Mail Stop: SSOP, Washington, DC 20402-9328
ISBN 0-16-042989-7

1. Children, when reading, construct their own meaning.

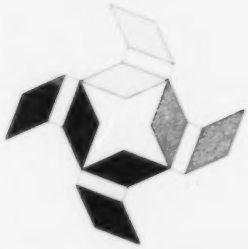
The meaning constructed from the same text can vary greatly among people because of differences in the knowledge they possess. Sometimes people do not have enough knowledge to understand a text, or they may have knowledge that they do not use fully. Variations in interpretation often arise because people have different conceptions about the topic than the author supposed.

(Anderson et al. 1985, p. 10)

Reading is comprehending, that is, the construction of meaning. Readers construct meaning by interacting with the text (Pearson et al. 1990) on the basis of their existing or prior knowledge about the world (Rumelhart 1980). The importance of prior knowledge in reading has been demonstrated through research based on schema theory (Anderson and Pearson 1984). According to schema theory, readers understand what they read only as it relates to what they already know. That is, their existing knowledge about a particular topic influences the extent to which they understand what they read about that topic. Because text is not fully explicit, readers must draw from their existing knowledge in order to understand it.

Prior knowledge should be looked at in two ways by the teacher when developing lessons: first, as overall prior knowledge, and second, as specific prior knowledge. Overall prior knowledge is the sum total of learning that students have acquired as a result of their cumulative experiences both in and out of school. Specific prior knowledge is the particular information a student needs in order to understand text that deals with a certain topic. Specific prior knowledge is of two types: text-specific knowledge calls for understanding about the type of text—for example, a story has a beginning, a middle, and an end; topic-specific knowledge entails understanding something about the topic—for example, knowing about dinosaurs before reading a book on prehistoric animals.

Overall prior knowledge is expanded continually by a variety of means which include extensive reading and writing. The more students read and write, the more their prior knowledge grows which, in turn, strengthens their ability to construct meaning as they read. Teachers must not only recognize that independent reading and writing activities are crucial for expanding students' prior knowledge. They must also systematically include such activities in their literacy program. In addition, both text-specific and topic-specific prior knowledge play an important role in helping students construct meaning (Paris et al. 1991). Activating only students' topical prior knowledge without helping them to consider the actual structure of the text does not improve their meaning-making abilities (Beck et al. 1982). Conversely, teachers can effectively improve these abilities when they activate all levels of students' prior knowledge appropriately.



2. Effective reading instruction can develop engaged readers who are knowledgeable, strategic, motivated, and socially interactive.

Our [National Reading Research Center's] overarching goal is to study how to cultivate highly engaged, self-determining readers who are the architects of their own learning. A unifying theme running throughout our research is that students will acquire the competencies and motivations to read for diverse aesthetic and academic purposes, such as gaining knowledge, interpreting an author's perspective, escaping into the literary world, performing a task, sharing reactions to stories and informational texts, or taking social and political action in response to what is read.

(Alvermann and Guthrie 1993, p. 135)

Until recently, reading instruction focused almost exclusively on cognitive aspects—for example, the mechanics of reading. However, teaching students to become literate involves much more. Literacy depends on a myriad of factors related to the *context* of literacy activities (e.g., the kind of social interaction that takes place during a reading group discussion) and the child's *personal attributes*, including cognitive development. An engaged reader: 1) uses prior knowledge to gain information from new material; 2) uses a variety of skills in a strategic way to gain information independently; 3) is internally motivated to read for information and for pleasure; and 4) interacts socially to make gains in literacy development.

The context of literacy instruction and personal attributes in addition to cognitive development influence children's reading success in profound ways. Therefore, when planning instruction, teachers must make provisions in daily lessons for factors such as students' motivation to read. For example, choosing to read is an important ingredient of engaged reading. It has been found that allowing students to choose reading material of interest to them is a powerful motivator that fosters independent reading habits. Effective teachers make use of this knowledge on a regular basis in planning and executing instruction.

Engaged reading, wherein students construct their own knowledge, is a form of engaged learning. Engaged reading goes beyond a reader's interaction with text. It is a means by which one becomes a member of a community of readers and society at large. To be engaged readers, students must recognize the value of reading and their own potential as readers and learners. Teachers can help students develop this recognition by providing them with access to multiple sources of reading and resources for learning.

Engaged reading develops in literacy classrooms where self- and mutual assessment are as routine as they are in everyday life. These assessments which promote engaged reading take a variety of forms, including: the constant, strategic monitoring of one's progress while reading (i.e., metacognition); the comparing of one's opinions and reactions to what one has read with those of others; and the monitoring of other people's reactions to one's own constructions of meaning. When such processes become regular events during literacy instruction, assessment and literacy learning become intertwined, such that learning is supported at the same time that it is assessed.

3. Phonemic awareness, a precursor to competency in identifying words, is one of the best predictors of later success in reading.

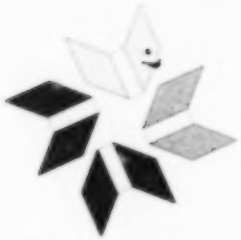
Children's awareness of the phonemic structure of spoken words is an extremely strong predictor of their success in learning to read. Because useful knowledge of spelling-sound correspondences depends on such phonemic awareness, children who fail to acquire it are severely handicapped in their ability to master print.

(Adams 1990, p. 412)

Phonemic awareness—discerning that spoken language is composed of phonemes—is an important predictor of success in learning to read (Juel 1988). It involves a child's ability to hear the sounds in a word and to distinguish between words based on the different sounds. Phonemic awareness helps children learn the letter-sound correspondences needed to read and spell words. Studies (Ball and Blachman 1991; Lundberg et al. 1988) have shown that phonemic awareness training improves children's ability to read and spell. Unless word identification is effortless and automatic, the reader cannot devote attention to constructing meaning while reading.

Phonics—instruction in the relationship between letters and sounds—can help children attain automatic, visual recognition of spelling patterns within words for word recognition. Efficient recognition of spelling patterns, in turn, depends on accurate and automatic recognition of individual letters. Studies of young children show that the most important precursor to success in learning to read is rapid recognition of the letters of the alphabet. Studies also show that the efficient use of sound patterns in speech depends on the awareness of phonemes in spoken language. This awareness relates strongly to success in beginning reading. Many children develop these prerequisites without formal instruction. This is likely due both to the frequency and quality of early experiences these children have with oral language and to the amount of exposure they have to print before entering school.

Effective beginning reading instruction is that which contains a balance of activities designed to improve word recognition, including phonics instruction and reading meaningful text. Writing and spelling activities are also part of effective reading instruction because they affect overall reading ability in a positive way. Encouraging children to make invented spellings (to spell words as they sound) helps develop phonemic awareness as well as increase knowledge of spelling patterns (Clarke 1988). Effective teachers interweave these activities within their instruction and, above all, ensure that phonics teaching is *not* done apart from connected, informative, engaging text.



4. Modeling is an important form of classroom support for literacy learning.

Strategies for approaching different types of reading have different types of purposes. We will not leave our students to discover these strategies on their own, because most of them won't. Rather, we will forthrightly show them. For example, you can effectively model out loud for students the way to determine the main idea or most important point of a text. We also model reading itself, not only during read-alouds with the children, but also by reading ourselves during *Sustained Silent Reading* (SSR) time . . . . Just as with sustained writing time, sustained silent reading is a time during which everyone is involved, including you.

(Templeton 1991, p. 272)

In the literacy classroom learning is a constructive, interactive process. As children develop literacy skills, they need careful guidance and support within their reading, writing, listening, and speaking experiences during instruction. Support in this context is sometimes referred to as scaffolding. Teacher modeling, a form of scaffolding, is a way of showing students how to approach a task such as finding the main idea of a story.

There are two types of modeling: implicit and explicit (Roehler and Duffey 1991). Implicit modeling occurs as part of the literacy experience—for example, reading a fable aloud to children while also engaging them in the meaning of story and conveying a purpose for reading. Explicit modeling entails demonstrating to students how to approach a task—such as how to use a table of contents.

Two types of explicit modeling are talk-alouds and think-alouds. In a talk-aloud activity, the teacher gives students a series of steps they must follow to complete a task, and then asks questions to guide students through the task from beginning to end. In a think-aloud activity, the teacher shares with students the thinking process one must go through to approach a task and complete it. On the one hand, in the talk-aloud method, the teacher's emphasis is on the procedural steps used to complete a task like finding the main idea. On the other hand, in the think-aloud approach, the teacher's emphasis is on the actual thinking process that he or she goes through in approaching and carrying out a cognitive task like inferring a main idea.

Both forms of modeling, implicit and explicit, have a place in the well-balanced literacy program. They are designed to show students strategies they can use on their own to gain an understanding of new material. It is critical, however, that modeling practices be seated within whole literacy events because they easily become instances of isolated skills teaching. Ensuring that modeling practices take place within an appropriate instructional context requires continuous vigilance from the teacher.

5. Storybook reading, done in the context of sharing experiences, ideas, and opinions, is a highly demanding mental activity for children.

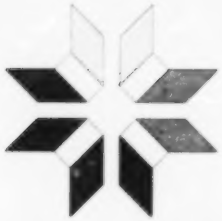
I define shared reading as any rewarding reading situation in which a learner—or group of learners—sees the text, observes an expert (usually the teacher) reading it with fluency and expression, and is invited to read along. The learner is in the role of receiving support, and the teacher-expert accepts and encourages all efforts and approximations the learner (the novice) makes. Each reading situation is a relaxed, social one, with emphasis on enjoyment and appreciation of the stories, songs, rhymes, chants, raps, and poems. The literature is carefully chosen for its high quality of language and illustrations and often includes rereadings of favorite stories and poems. Following shared reading, students have opportunities to reread the literature independently.

(Routman 1991, p. 33)

Storybook reading is most effective for developing children's ability to understand stories when it involves far more than reading aloud the words of an author (Teale and Sulzby 1987; Morrow 1988). Readers construct meaning about what they read using their background or prior knowledge. Moreover, readers construct meaning as they interact with peers and adults in discussing stories (Jett-Simpson 1989). Similarly, the discussion among readers and listeners that occurs in response to shared text is an important part of the story-time experience. Using interactive strategies such as story-based discussions along with storybook reading helps children construct meaning and understand stories that are read to them.

Recent research indicates that it is important to provide children daily with positive experiences involving stories and other literature (Morrow et al. 1990). Opportunities for such experiences include reading and retelling stories, discussing stories critically, role-playing, responding to stories both orally and in writing or through expressive art (e.g., drawing), and sharing books with peers. Children support one another in their efforts to understand and reflect on stories (Eeds and Wells 1989). When children participate in one-to-one read-aloud events, the quality and complexity of their responses increase. Also, when children have repeated experiences with stories, their interpretive responses become more varied and more complex.

Children's stories, both oral and written, have been the subject of important research on the development of children's ability to construct coherent text. As children hear stories told and read, they learn the structure as well as the linguistic features of stories or narrative text (Cox and Sulzby 1984). Children often display this knowledge by "talking like a book" when they pretend to read their favorite stories (Pappas and Brown 1987). There is ample research evidence to show that teachers who read aloud to children foster their ability to deal effectively with narrative text (i.e., stories). Children are engaging in their most intellectually demanding work when they share ideas and opinions about stories, and share experiences related to stories read or told to them (Dyson 1987).



6. Responding to literature helps students construct their own meaning which may not always be the same for all readers.

Classrooms where responses to literature thrive seem to be characterized by teachers' valuing of responses as the crux of literacy growth. Valuing of response in the classroom is evident when teachers (a) provide opportunities for response, (b) provide response models, and (c) receive children's responses (in all their diversity).

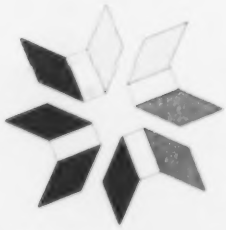
(Martinez and Roser 1991, p. 652)

Responding is a natural part of the reading process. When students read a piece of literature they respond to it by using their prior knowledge to construct meaning. That is, their transaction with the text results in the construction of their own personal meaning (Rosenblatt 1938/1976; 1991). Responding helps students develop their metacognitive skills which are important to constructing meaning (Palincar and Brown 1986). Students develop these self-monitoring skills by being encouraged continuously to think about and respond to what they read and write.

Reading informational text is different from reading literature such as fiction or poetry. One reads informational material to find factual information that serves a specific purpose. With fiction or poetry, the reader's aim is primarily aesthetic—for example, to become engrossed by an intriguing plot or clutched by an emotion-evoking description of nature. Teachers honor the difference between informational text and literature when they allow students to read a selection of fiction or poetry without asking them to find facts. Permitting students to read fiction and poetry aesthetically enhances the goal of providing children with pleasurable experiences with literature (DeGroff and Galda 1992).

There is a commonly accepted response which is expected from students, and there is a more personal response which differs from student to student for any given piece of literature. And within the bounds of commonly accepted responses, there are often a variety of interpretations. Teachers must be prepared to expect, respect, and accept a variety of student responses and accommodate them within their literacy instruction. Students' personal responses can be expressed through a variety of means such as oral discussion, debate, role-playing, and graphic illustration. Encouraging students' personal responses to literature improves their ability to construct meaning (Galda 1983; Eeds and Wells 1989). Over time, students develop more and more complex responses to literature that help them become better at constructing meaning.

Children who are schooled in response-centered classrooms where their responses to literature are valued develop a sense of ownership, pride, and respect with regard to learning (Hansen 1987). Out of this shared value of learning comes a sense of community, which in turn bolsters everyone's efforts—those of students and teachers alike.



7. Children who engage in daily discussions about what they read are more likely to become critical readers and learners.

I, too, have learned many things about talk from my work in the classroom and from examining the talk of students. This research has informed my practice; I can never again hold a monopoly on talk in the classroom as did the teachers of my educational experience. My voice is one among the many teachers, many students, many learners in the room. We are creating a new legacy, one of voice, empowerment, and interaction. Through our talk, we get together, get along, and get to the business of teaching and learning.

(Cintorino 1993, p. 32)

Students' discussion in classrooms is important to their learning. Research shows that students' verbal exchanges about content improve learning and increase their level of thinking (Marzano 1991). The social nature of learning implies that, because each context is different, participants must always evaluate what to say, when and how, consider options, and make choices. Learning rests on taking these actions. (Hansen and Graves 1991).

Using discussion to connect literature and other texts with a variety of experiences and the prior knowledge of the reader maximizes students' learning, given that they critically discuss topics worth talking about. This interactive approach is based on the knowledge that, on the one hand, simply acquiring information like names and dates *does not* amount to significant learning. On the other hand, discussion among students, at any age, in which they hear different points of view and collaborate to solve problems, serves as a catalyst for the development of logical reasoning skills.

Traditionally, discussion in classrooms has not been common. As students advance through the grades, opportunities for discussion in the classroom appear to decrease. This situation has been so prevalent that in her study of secondary English classes, Alvermann (1986) called discussion the "forgotten language art." Nevertheless, when students are given opportunities to talk and listen, they can and do converse in productive ways to learn in all areas of the curriculum (Berrill 1988). Questions, rethinking, and refined understandings result when students discuss their understandings of themes or concepts that appear in text (Langer 1991; 1992).

Given the importance of discussion for effective learning, effective teaching involves providing students with ample opportunities to engage in daily discussions with one another. Small group and peer-to-peer interaction are valuable in promoting academic and social learning. Children who rely on each other for help learn more than children who work alone (Cazden 1988). Instruction can be organized in a variety of ways to facilitate discussion. One way is to form a cooperative learning group of students with varying abilities to read, discuss, or respond to a piece of text. Another way is to pair students with a "buddy" to interact and problem solve. The more students work in groups or pairs, the more productive their discussions will become, especially as their social skills become more refined.

8. Expert readers have strategies that they use to construct meaning before, during, and after reading.

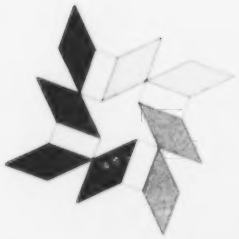
One of the hallmarks of education and literacy is the ability to read thoughtfully and flexibly. The development of strategic reading is a lifelong endeavor that is supported by parents, peers, and teachers who instill enthusiasm, knowledge, and confidence in students. As students learn to regulate their own reading and to use strategies for different purposes, they become independent learners who read with confidence and enjoyment. Thus, strategic reading contributes directly to lifelong education and personal satisfaction.

(Paris, Wasik, and Turner 1991, p. 635)

As students become proficient readers, they develop a set of plans or strategies for solving problems they encounter in their reading experiences. Much research has been conducted to identify these strategies (Baker and Brown 1984; Pressley et al. 1989). Although much remains to be done in this area of literacy research, at least five important strategies have been identified as critical to learning and therefore should be taught in a good literacy program (Cooper 1993). These strategies include: inferencing, identifying important information, monitoring, summarizing, and question generating.

Inferencing is the process of reaching conclusions based on information within the text and is the cornerstone of constructing meaning. Inferencing includes making predictions using prior knowledge combined with information available from text. **Identifying important information** is the process of finding critical facts and details in narrative (e.g., stories) or expository (e.g., informational) text. The task of identifying important information in narrative text differs from that of identifying important information in expository text because the structures of the text are different. However, students can be taught strategies for approaching each type of text. **Monitoring** is a metacognitive or self-awareness process that expert constructors of meaning use to help themselves overcome problems as they read. For example, when good readers have difficulty understanding a paragraph, they become aware of the problem and stop immediately to "fix" it by employing a strategy such as rereading. **Summarizing** is a process that involves pulling together important information gathered from a long passage of text. **Question generating** involves readers asking themselves questions they want answered from reading that require them to integrate information while they read.

These five strategies for constructing meaning are based on substantial research. Many studies in which nonexpert readers were trained to use these strategies have shown very promising results (Palincar and Brown 1984; Baumann 1984; Rinehart et al. 1986; Pressley et al. 1991; 1992). Effective teachers incorporate these strategies into their ongoing literacy instruction. When modeling these strategies, they treat them as a set of devices for constructing meaning instead of as independent activities that are isolated from the literacy context.



9. Children's reading and writing abilities develop together.

Historical and cross-cultural evidence suggests that literacy in a society might entail reading and writing as separate or related entities (Clifford 1989). We believe strongly that in our society, at this point in history, reading and writing, to be understood and appreciated fully, should be viewed together, learned together, and used together.

(Tierney and Shannahan 1991, p. 275)

Both reading and writing are constructive processes (Pearson and Tierney 1984). A similar, if not the same, level of intellectual activity underlies both reading and writing: interactions between the reader/writer and text lead to new knowledge and interpretations of text (Langer 1986; Martin 1987). Just as thoughtful readers read for a specific purpose by activating prior knowledge about the topic at hand, writers activate prior knowledge that relates to the topic and have a purpose for writing—to impart meaning to a reader.

While reading, readers reread and modify meaning accordingly. While writing, writers think about the topic and the more they think, the better developed their writing becomes. They also think about what they've written, reread it, and make revisions to improve it. Lastly, readers finalize the meaning they have constructed so far. Writers do likewise: they settle on their final composition.

The processes of reading and writing not only unfold in similar ways, they tend to be used together. This is natural because in everyday life reading and writing frequently occur together. For example, a person receives a letter—via the postal service or electronic mail—reads it, then answers it in writing, perhaps rereading portions of the letter while constructing the response. Moreover, learning about reading and writing takes place in a social context that contains written language and where people use and talk about written language.

When reading and writing are taught together the benefits are greater than when they are taught separately. Research (Tierney and Shannahan 1991) has begun to show that writing leads to improved reading achievement, reading leads to better writing performance, and combined instruction leads to improvements in both areas. Moreover, research (McGinley and Tierney 1989) has shown that engaging learners in the greater variety of experiences provided when reading and writing instruction are combined leads to a higher level of thinking than when either process is taught alone. Since thinking is a critical part of meaning construction, students will become better thinkers if they are taught in classrooms where meaning is actively constructed through reading and writing. Teachers can be most effective in helping students to become better readers, writers, and thinkers when they weave integrated reading and writing activities into their literacy instruction.

10. The most valuable form of reading assessment reflects our current understanding about the reading process and simulates authentic reading tasks.

The optimist says assessment will drive instruction in the future and new and better assessments are being developed to do the job. But the cautious optimist says this will only happen if educators at all levels understand the difference between sound and unsound assessment and can integrate sound assessments into the instruction process in effective ways.

(Stiggins and Conklin 1992, p. 3)

Until very recently reading assessment focused on measuring students' performance on a hierarchy of isolated skills that, when put together, were thought to compose "reading." Now it is known that the whole act of reading is greater than the sum of its parts (i.e., isolated skills). Moreover, these parts are interrelated within a literacy context and *do not* always develop in a hierarchical way. The discrete skills concept has been replaced with the current constructive, interactive view on literacy learning. This perspective grew out of recent research on cognition that revolutionized what we know about learning. However, by and large, practices in literacy assessment have not kept pace with what is known about literacy learning, although they are beginning to change.

The role of standardized tests in the literacy program is likely to remain important. Because state and local school districts are likely to continue using norm-referenced, standardized tests to evaluate literacy programs, state tests and the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) are undergoing substantial changes. The majority of these changes involve creating authentic assessments—appraisals that account for critical aspects of reading and that parallel everyday reading tasks. Changes that are moving assessment closer to simulating authentic reading tasks include: using unabridged text directly from the original source for assessing meaning construction; accounting for students' prior knowledge before reading; incorporating samples (portfolios) of student work; and making student self-assessment part of the standardized testing program.

Literacy assessments done in the classroom that involve performance tasks are beginning to provide valuable information needed to direct instructional decision making. Many teachers are turning to portfolio assessments that include multiple measures taken over time of individual students' reading and writing. Well-constructed portfolios contain samples of student work, including representative pieces of work in progress and exceptional pieces, students' reflection about their work, and evaluation criteria. For example, pieces of students' writing in which they share their thinking and feeling about their reading—text analyses from their own point of view—may be included in portfolios. Creating and using performance assessments as alternatives and/or supplements to norm-referenced tests are helping to transform reading instruction and learning in today's state-of-the-art classroom.

References

Adams, M.J. (1990). *Beginning to read: Thinking and learning about print.* Cambridge, MA: The MIT Press.

Alvermann, D.E. (1986). Discussion: The forgotten art: Becoming literate in the secondary school. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Association, San Francisco. (ERIC No. 269 717).

Alvermann, D.E., and Guthrie, J.T. (1993). The National Reading Research Center. In A.P. Sweet and J.I. Anderson (Eds.), *Reading research into the year 2000* (p. 135). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence E. Erlbaum Associates, Inc.

Anderson, R.C., and Pearson, P.D. (1984). A schema-theoretic view of basic processes in reading comprehension. In P.D. Pearson, R. Barr, M. Kamil, and P. Mosenthal (Eds.), *Handbook of reading research,* 1 (pp. 255–291). White Plains, NY: Longman Publishing Group.

Anderson, R.C., Hiebert, E.H., Scott, J.A., and Wilkinson, I.A.G. (1985). *Becoming a nation of readers: The report of the Commission on Reading.* Champaign, IL: Center for the Study of Reading.

Baker, L., and Brown, A. (1984). Cognitive monitoring in reading. In J. Flood (Ed.), *Understanding reading comprehension* (pp. 21–44). Newark, DE: International Reading Association.

Ball, E.W., and Blachman, B.A. (1991). Does phoneme awareness training in kindergarten make a difference in early word recognition and developmental spelling? *Reading Research Quarterly,* 26(1), 49–66.

Baumann, J.F. (1984). The effectiveness of a direct instruction paradigm for teaching main idea comprehension. *Reading Research Quarterly,* 20(1), 93–115.

Beck, I.L., Omanson, R.C., and McKeown, M.G. (1982). An instructional redesign of reading lessons: Effects on comprehension. *Reading Research Quarterly,* 17(4), 462–481.

Berrill, D.P. (1988). Anecdote and the development of oral argument in sixteen-year-olds. In M. MacLure, T. Phillips, and A. Wilkinson (Eds.), *Oracy matters* (pp. 57–68). Milton Keynes; Philadelphia, PA, USA: Open University Press.

Cazden, C. (1988). *Classroom discourse: The language of teaching and learning.* Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

Cintorino, M.A. (1993). Getting together, getting along, getting to the business of teaching and learning. *English Journal,* 82(1), 23–32.

Clarke, L.K. (1988). Invented versus traditional spelling in first graders' writings: Effects on learning to spell and read. *Research in the Teaching of English,* 22, 281–309.

Clifford, G.J. (1989). A sisyphean task: Historical perspectives on writing and reading instruction. In A.H. Dyson (Ed.), *Collaboration through writing and reading.* Urbana, IL: National Council of Teachers of English.

Cooper, J. D. (1993). *Literacy: Helping children construct meaning.* Boston, MA: Houghton Mifflin Company.

Cox, B., and Sulzby, E. (1984). Children's use of reference in told, dictated, and handwritten stories. *Research in the Teaching of English,* 18, 345–365.

DeGroff, L., and Galda, L. (1992). Responding to literature: Activities for exploring books. In B.E. Cullinan (Ed.), *Invitation to Read: More children's literature in the reading program.* Newark, DE: International Reading Association.

Dyson, A.H. (1987). The value of "time off task": Young children's spontaneous talk and deliberate text. *Harvard Educational Review,* 57, 396–420.

Eeds, M., and Wells, D. (1989). Grand conversations: An exploration of meaning construction in literature study groups. *Research in the Teaching of English,* 23, 4–29.

Galda, L. (1983). Research in response to literature. *Journal of Research and Development in Education,* 16, 1–20.

Hansen, J. (1987). *When writers read.* Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

Hansen, J., and Graves, D.H. (1991). The language arts interact. In J. Flood, J.M. Jensen, D. Lapp, and J. Squire (Eds.), *Handbook of research in the English language arts* (pp. 805–819). New York: Macmillan.

Jett-Simpson, M. (1989). Creative drama and story comprehension. In J.W. Stewig and S.L. Sebasta (Eds.), *Using literature in the elementary classroom* (pp. 91–109). Urbana, IL: National Council of Teachers of English.

Juel, C. (1988). Learning to read and write: A longitudinal study of 54 children from first through fourth grades. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 78, 243–255.

Langer, J.A. (1986). Reading, writing, and understanding: An analysis of the construction of meaning. *Written Communication*, 3(2), 219–267.

———. (1991). Discussion as exploration: Literature and the horizon of possibilities. In G. Newell and R. Durst (Eds.), *The role of discussion and writing in the teaching and learning of literature*. Norwood, MA: Christopher-Gordon Publishers.

———. (1992). Academic learning and critical reasoning: A study of knowing in academic subjects. Final Report, Grant No. R117E0051. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Education.

Lundberg, I., Frost, J., and Petersen, O. (1988). Effects of an extensive program for stimulating phonological awareness in preschool children. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 23, 263–284.

Martin, S. (1987). The meaning-making strategies reported by provident readers and writers. Paper presented at the meeting of the National Reading Conference, St. Petersburg, FL.

Martinez, M.G., and Roser, N.L. (1991). Children's responses to literature. In J. Flood, J.M. Jensen, D. Lapp, and J. Squire (Eds.), *Handbook of research in the English language arts* (pp. 643–663). New York: Macmillan.

Marzano, R.J. (1991). Language, the language arts, and thinking. In J. Flood, J.M. Jensen, D. Lapp, and J. Squire (Eds.), *Handbook of research in the English language arts* (pp. 559–586). New York: Macmillan.

McGinley, W., and Tierney, R.J. (1989). Traversing the topical landscape: Reading and writing as ways of knowing. *Written Communication*, 6, 243–269.

Morrow, L.M. (1988). Young children's responses to one-to-one story readings in school settings. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 23, 89–107.

Morrow, L.M., O'Connor, E.M., and Smith, J. (1990). Effects of a storyreading program on the literacy development of at-risk kindergarten children. *Journal of Reading Behavior*, 20(2), 104–141.

Palincar, A.S., and Brown, A. (1984). Reciprocal teaching of comprehension-fostering and comprehension-monitoring activities. *Cognition and Instruction*, 2, 117–175.

———. (1986). Interactive teaching to promote independent learning from text. *Reading Teacher*, 39(8), 771–777.

Pappas, C.C., and Brown, E. (1987). Learning to read by reading: Learning how to extend the functional potential of language. *Research in the Teaching of English*, 21, 160–184.

Paris, S.G., Wasik, B.A., and Turner, J.C. (1991). The development of reading strategies. In J. Flood, J.M. Jensen, D. Lapp, and J. Squire (Eds.), *Handbook of research in the English language arts* (pp. 609–635). New York: Macmillan.

Pearson, P.D., and Tierney, R.J. (1984). On becoming a thoughtful reader: Learning to read like a writer. In A.C. Purves and O. Niles (Eds.), *Becoming readers in a complex society* [*Eighty-third Yearbook of the National Society of the Study of Education*] (pp. 144–173). Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Pearson, P.D., Roehler, L.R., Dole, J.A., and Duffy, G.G. (1990). *Developing expertise in reading comprehension: What should be taught? How should it be taught?* Technical Report No. 512. Champaign, IL: Center for the Study of Reading.

Pressley, M., Johnson, C.J., Symons, S., McGoldrick, J.S., and Kurita, J.A. (1989). Strategies that improve children's memory and comprehension of text. *Elementary School Journal*, 90, 3–32.

Pressley, M., Gaskins, I.W., Wile, D., Cunicelli, E.A., and Sheridan, J. (1991). Teaching strategy instruction across the curriculum: A case study at Benchmark School. In S. McCormick and J. Zutell (Eds.), *40th yearbook of the National Reading Conference*. Chicago: National Reading Conference.

Pressley, M., Schuder, T., and Bergman, J. (1992). A researcher-educator collaborative interview study of transactional comprehension strategies instruction. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 84, 231–46.

Rinehart, S.D., Stahl, S.A., and Erickson, L.G. (1986). Some effects of summarization training on reading and studying. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 21, 422–438.

Robinson, H.A., Faraone, V., Hittleman, D.R., and Unruh, E. (1990). *Reading comprehension instruction 1783–1987: A review of trends and research*. Newark, DE: International Reading Association.

Roehler, L.R., and Duffey, G.G. (1991). Teachers' instructional actions. In R. Barr, M.L. Kamil, P. Mosenthal, and P.D. Pearson (Eds.), *Handbook of Reading Research*, 2 (pp. 861–883). New York: Longman.

Rosenblatt, L. (1938/1976). *Literature as exploration.* New York: Modern Language Association.

Rosenblatt, L. M. (1991). Literary Theory. In J. Flood, J.M. Jensen, D. Lapp, and J. Squire (Eds.), *Handbook of research in the English language arts* (pp. 57–62). New York: Macmillan.

Routman, R. (1991). *Invitations: Changing as teachers and learners K–12.* Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

Rumelhart, D.E. (1980). Schemata: The building blocks of cognition. In R.J. Spiro, B.C. Bruce, and W.F. Brewer (Eds.), *Theoretical issues in reading comprehension* (pp. 35–58). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence E. Erlbaum Associates, Inc.

Stiggins, R.J., and Conklin, N.F. (1992). *In teachers' hands: Investigating the practices of classroom assessment.* Albany, NY: State University of New York Press.

Teale, W.H., and Sulzby, E. (1987). Literacy acquisition in early childhood: The roles of access and mediation in storybook reading. In D.A. Wagner (Ed.), *The future of literacy in a changing world.* New York: Pergamon Press.

Templeton, S. (1991). *Teaching the integrated language arts.* Boston, MA: Houghton Mifflin Company.

Tierney, R.J., and Shannahan, T. (1991). Research on the reading-writing relationship: Interactions, transactions, and outcomes. In R. Barr, M.L. Kamil, P. Mosenthal, and P.D. Pearson (Eds.), *Handbook of reading research,* 2 (pp. 246–280). New York: Longman.

*Suggested Reading

Adams, M.J. (1990). *Beginning to read: Thinking and learning about print—A summary.* (Prepared by S.A. Stahl, J. Osborn, and F. Lehr). Urbana-Champaign: University of Illinois, Center for the Study of Reading.

Allen, J.B., Michalove, B., and Shockley, B. (1993). *Engaging children: Community and chaos in the lives of young literacy learners.* Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

Alvermann, D.E., and Guthrie, J.T. (1993). *Themes and directions of the National Reading Research Center. Perspectives in Reading Research, No. 1.* Athens, GA: University of Georgia and University of Maryland at College Park.

Anderson, R.C., Hiebert, E.H., Scott, J.A., and Wilkinson, I.A.G. (1985). *Becoming a nation of readers: The report of the Commission on Reading.* Champaign, IL: Center for the Study of Reading.

Calkins, L. (1991). *Living between the lines.* Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

Cooper, J. D. (1993). *Literacy: Helping children construct meaning.* Boston, MA: Houghton Mifflin Company.

Cullinan, B.E. (Ed.) (1992). *Invitation to read: More children's literature in the reading program.* Newark, DE: International Reading Association.

Routman, R. (1991). *Invitations: Changing as teachers and learners K–12.* Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

Stein, M., Hadreas, C., Olson, M.R., Parker, G., and Wayne, S. (1993). *The Beginning Reading Instruction Study.* GPO Stock No. 065–000–00575–1. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Education.

Sweet, A.P., and Anderson, J.I. (Eds.) (1993). *Reading research into the year 2000.* Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence E. Erlbaum Associates, Inc.

Templeton, S. (1991). *Teaching the integrated language arts.* Boston, MA: Houghton Mifflin Company.

Tierney, R. J., Carter, M. A., and Desai, L. E. (1991). *Portfolio assessment in the reading–writing classroom.* Norwood, MA: Christopher-Gordon Publishers.

* These books, several of which appear under ***References***, are particularly valuable sources on reading for teachers and other educators.

ED/OERI 93-7

U.S. GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE

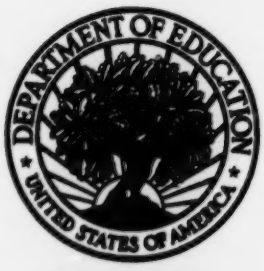
ISBN 0-16-042989-7

United States
Department of Education
Washington, DC 20208–5573

Official Business
Penalty for Private Use, $300

Postage and Fees Paid
U.S. Department of Education
Permit No. G–17

Third Class



BEST COPY AVAILABLE

OR 93–3046